



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

THE GEOGRAPHICAL REVIEW

VOL. I

APRIL, 1916

No. 4

THE ECONOMIC RESOURCES OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE

By E. K. REYNOLDS

One of the far-reaching results of the war in this country has been the stimulation of an interest in Russia. This is not exactly a new thing. Americans have for a long time been interested in the great writers, composers, and artists, as well as the politics of Russia. There was a time even, not long since, when Americans were more occupied with conditions in Russian prisons than in their own. But all that has little in common with this new interest, which is pointed toward the discovery of a new Russia, hitherto unsought and unknown,—economic Russia. Politics and fiction are brushed aside, and Russia is being evaluated in terms of her economic possibilities. Americans are beginning to study the growth of the Russian Empire and its wealth in natural resources.

The story of the expansion of a country which has resulted in the largest compact political organization the world has ever seen is necessarily an interesting one. The beginnings of Russian history, like that of every country, are but vaguely known. The foundation stone of the Russian state was laid in Novgorod in 862 A. D., but it was a century or two earlier that a group of Eastern Slavs came down from the Carpathians and settled on the banks of the Dniepr. There they built up a flourishing trading state, with its center at Kiev. The Dniepr became the great trade route; amber from the Baltic and furs, honey, and wax from the forests along its banks were carried down to Constantinople, while gold, silver, stuffs, wine, and fruits were brought up the river in return.

In those days of prosperity, the Eastern Slavs, later known as Russians, were free to develop their local institutions, and, according to all accounts, they governed themselves in an extremely democratic way. They had their princes, but these constituted little more than military leaders and were bound in every way by the will of their subjects as expressed through their common council. Then came the fateful day when the Russians had to sacrifice everything to stem the rising tide of Tatar invasion. They were defeated, but their dead bodies formed a rampart which checked the yellow

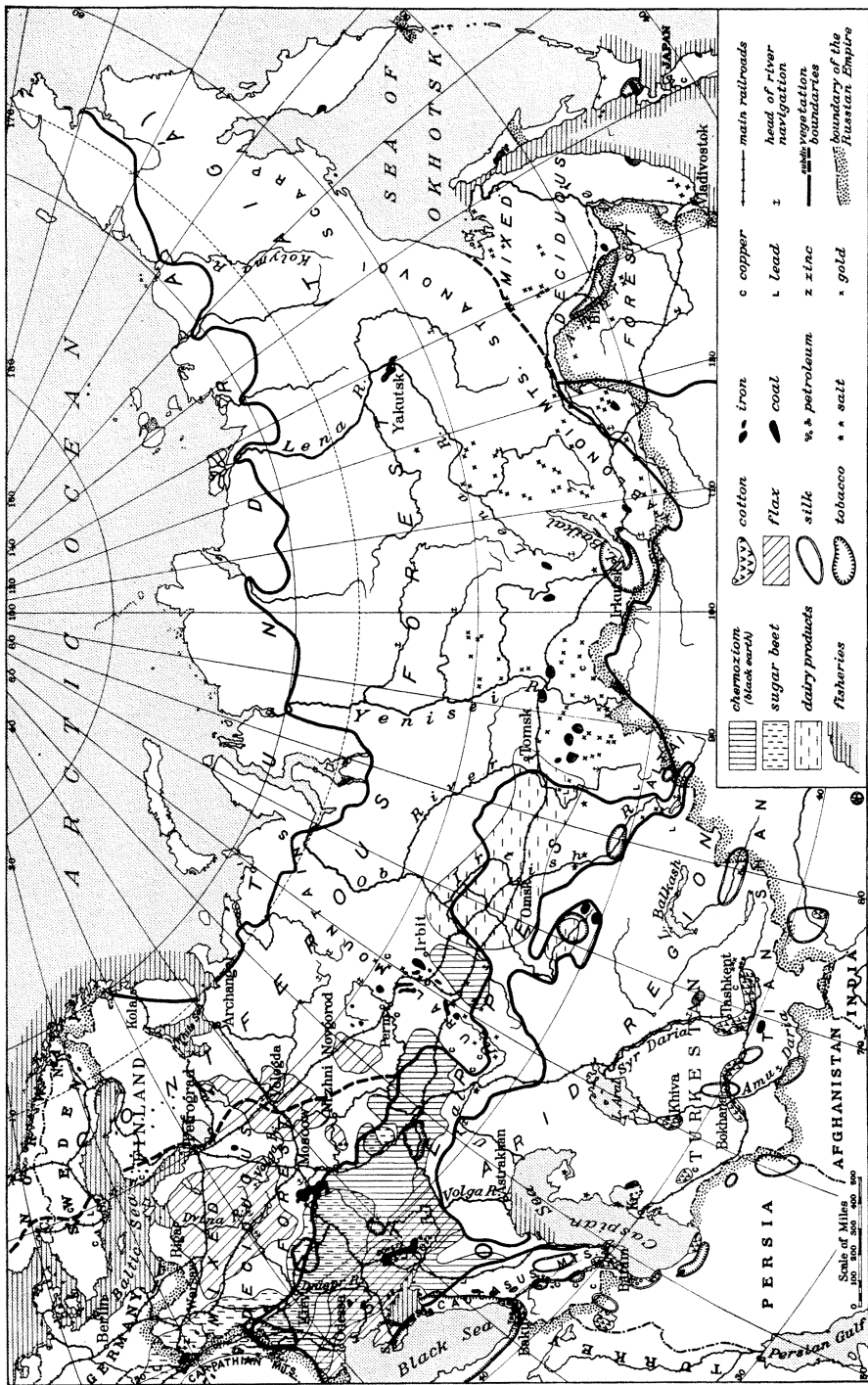


FIG. 1.—Sketch-map of the economic resources of the Russian Empire, based on Unstead, Bartholomew, Scobel, and other sources. Scale, 1:45,000,000.

NOTE: Baku and Batum should be transposed.

hosts and saved Europe and Western civilization from their onslaught. The price that Russia had to pay for this and the real significance of her act are far from being fully appreciated by her western neighbors. Those same nations who have to thank her for almost their very existence can find nothing better to do, now that she is emerging from her bitter, century-long struggle to take her place in the front rank of the peoples of the world, than to make faces at her backwardness.

For Russia, the Tatar invasion had the most terrible consequences. It meant the wiping out of the whole political organization which she had developed along such democratic lines. To escape the oppressive rule of the invaders, many returned to the Carpathians, to Galicia, but the majority moved to the northeast, from Kiev in the general direction of Moscow and the upper reaches of the Volga. Here they found themselves suddenly confronted with the grim task, first of conquering new homes from hostile Finnish tribes, then of wringing an existence from nature in the dark, endless forests and marshes of the North, fighting starvation and absorption year after year. These were the conditions under which the "Great Russians" came into being. Racially the same as the "Little Russians" of the lower Dniepr, their character underwent a change which has persisted to this day. The care-free, unrestrained gaiety of the early days, when they were a happy-go-lucky, prosperous nation of traders, was hammered out of them by the circumstances of their daily life, and the Great Russian peasant was born sturdy, resolute; watchful and mindful of every move of nature, he was ready for and resigned to any hardships.

In this new order of things, Moscow became the center of gravity in place of Kiev. Its geographical position justified this, because, being situated on a tributary of the Volga, which flows all through eastern Russia down to the Caspian, and at the same time being near the headwaters of the Dniepr, the trade route from the Baltic to the Black Sea, it naturally became the economic center of Russia. Moreover, with the fall of Kiev the religious center was shifted to Moscow. Finally, and this is the most important reason, it was the prince of Moscow who had the perspicacity to insinuate himself into the good graces of the Tatar ruler and to learn from him the art of powerful, centralized government. He was made tax-collector for the khan, and in this way practically all the Russians were brought under his control. Then at a given moment he used the power vested in him by the Tatars to turn against his master and refused him further allegiance. This was the beginning of a long and bloody struggle. While in western Europe the arts and sciences were free to flourish and nations could progress, Russia had to keep her lonely vigil at the eastern gate.

Fighting step by step, the Russians followed the great plain to its limits, wandering up to the White Sea, eastward across the Volga to the Urals, and across the Urals into the level land of western Siberia. They spread

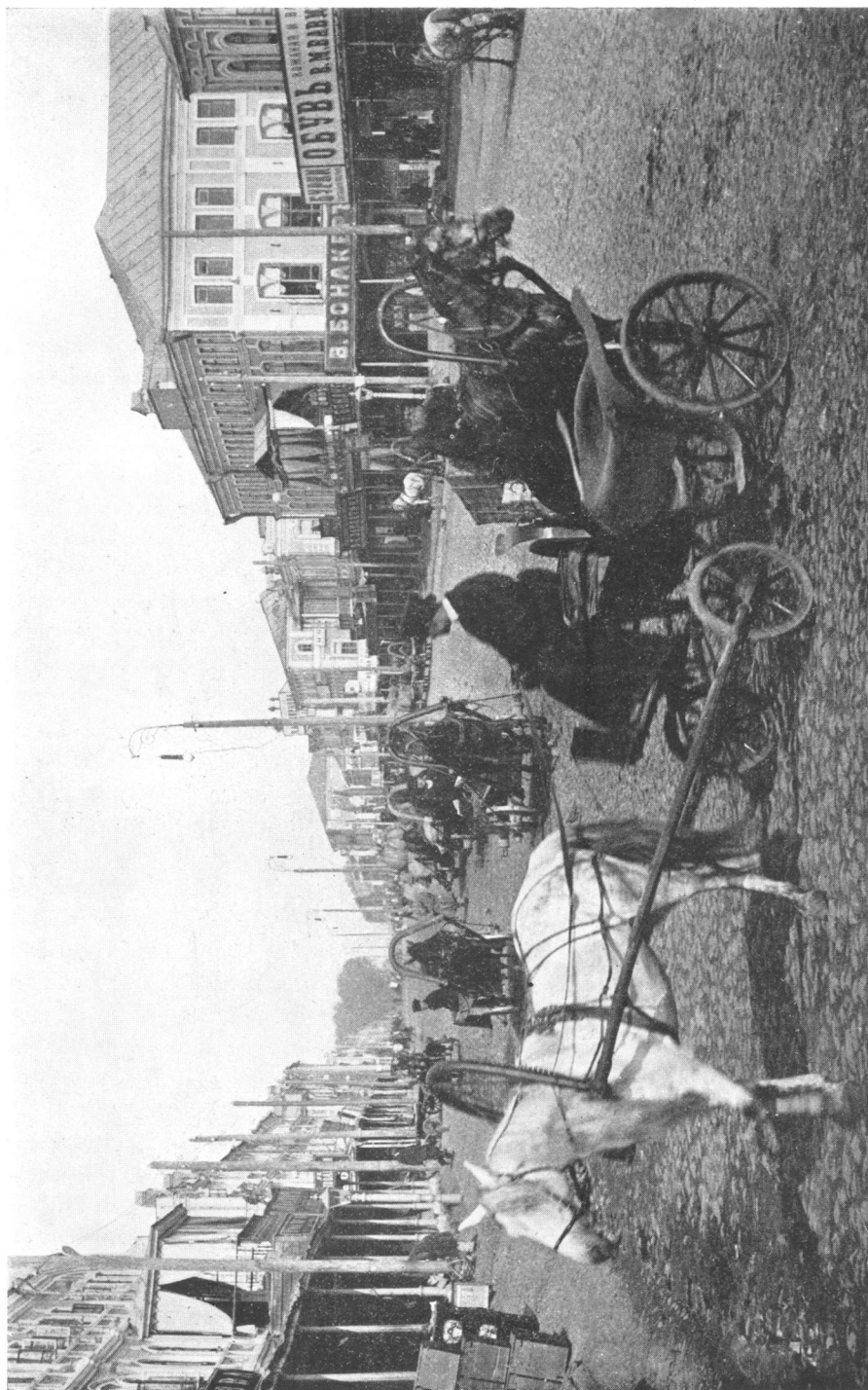


FIG. 2.—The main street in the Fair, Nizhni-Novgorod.

The Fair forms a town by itself, which lies across the Oka River at its junction with the Volga (see Fig. 3). Its booths and warehouses are the scene, every summer, of transactions involving goods to the value of \$125,000,000 and attracting 400,000 visitors.

in every direction, continually advancing their frontiers toward the sea, the sea which would be a barrier to their enemies and an outlet for their trade. They succeeded in establishing themselves definitely on the northern shore of the Black Sea, only to find themselves blocked at the Dardanelles. In the east they broke their way through the mountains of eastern Siberia to plant their flag on the shores of the Pacific. But the Pacific was three months' travel from Moscow. The Baltic then seemed to offer the solution to the problem, and Sweden was forced to cede the territory on which Petrograd now stands. This, in brief, is the story of the expansion of the Russian land from a settlement on the Dnieper, northward, southward, eastward, to the Arctic Ocean, the Black Sea, the Caspian, the confines of China, and the shores of the Pacific.

At present the Russian Empire encompasses 42 degrees of latitude and no less than 173 degrees of longitude, that is to say, it doubles the extent of the United States in length and nearly triples it in breadth. The Empire State of New York could be easily set down in the 8,647,657 square miles of the Russian Empire's area 165 times; while Russia, west of the Urals alone, is 10 times the size of France, and 33 times the size of England and Wales. European Russia takes up over one-half of Europe, and Asiatic Russia over one-third of all Asia. So we find Russia occupying more than one-seventh of the total land surface of the globe.

In discussing the various parts of this gigantic whole, custom has fixed a dividing line between east and west in the Ural Mountains. This boundary, however, is, like the equatorial line, more fictitious than real. European Russia and western Siberia are, generally speaking, one vast plain, which slopes on the north to the Arctic Ocean and on the south to the Black Sea and the Caspian. This great plain is barely broken by the Urals: in their central part, where the Trans-Siberian railroad crosses them, the ascent is so gradual that one is not in the least aware of ascending, until at a given moment a sign post is reached which points in one direction, "to Europe," in the other "to Asia." A slight change in the character of the vegetation is also noticed. But before and behind are the great sweeps of level country.

To the Asiatic side of the Urals the farmers from the other end of the plain have been flocking for years, in spite of the ill repute that accompanies a penal settlement. They find natural conditions very little different from the European side, but they find a virgin soil, a chance to start life afresh. They are usually prosperous and happy and less restricted by government regulations. These are the builders of the new Russia. In them there is all the living promise of the future. They have the backbone of the race; they are of the purest Russian stock; and, at the same time, as pioneers in a new country, their vision is broader, they are untrammelled by convention, they are as fresh and vigorous as the untamed nature around them.

Both here and in European Russia, life is more or less the same. That,

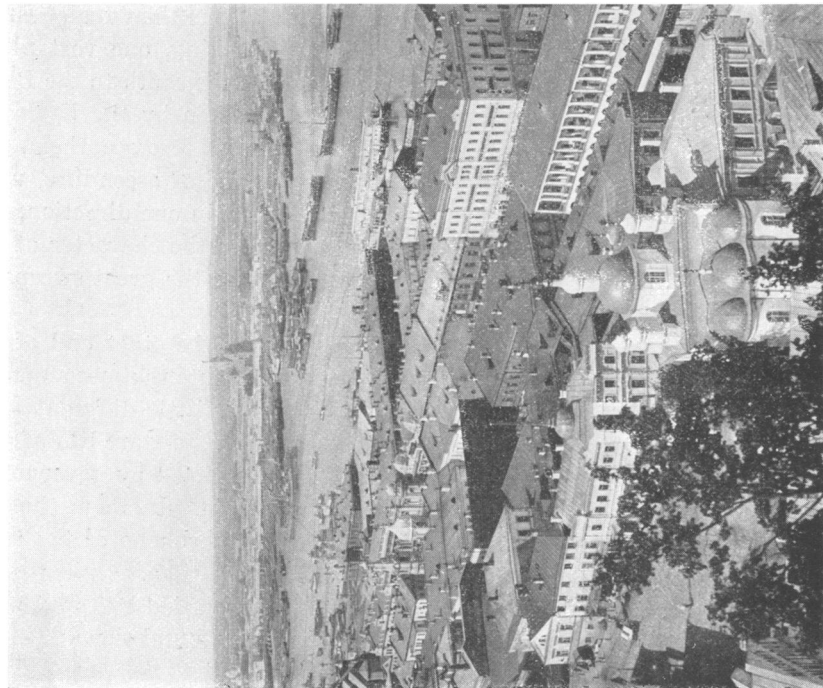


FIG. 3—View of Nizhni-Novgorod and the Fair across the Oka River.

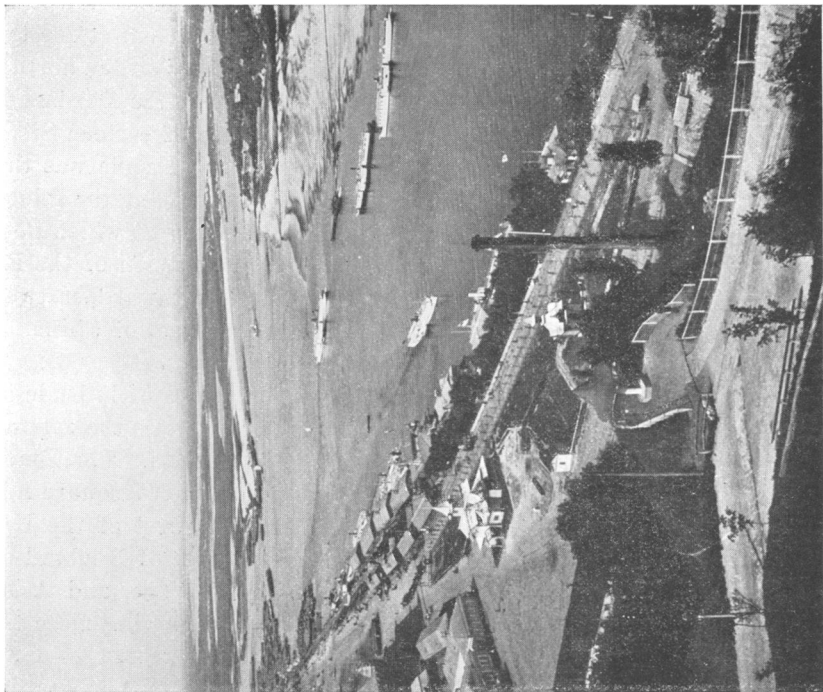


FIG. 4—The plain of the Dniepr at Kiev.

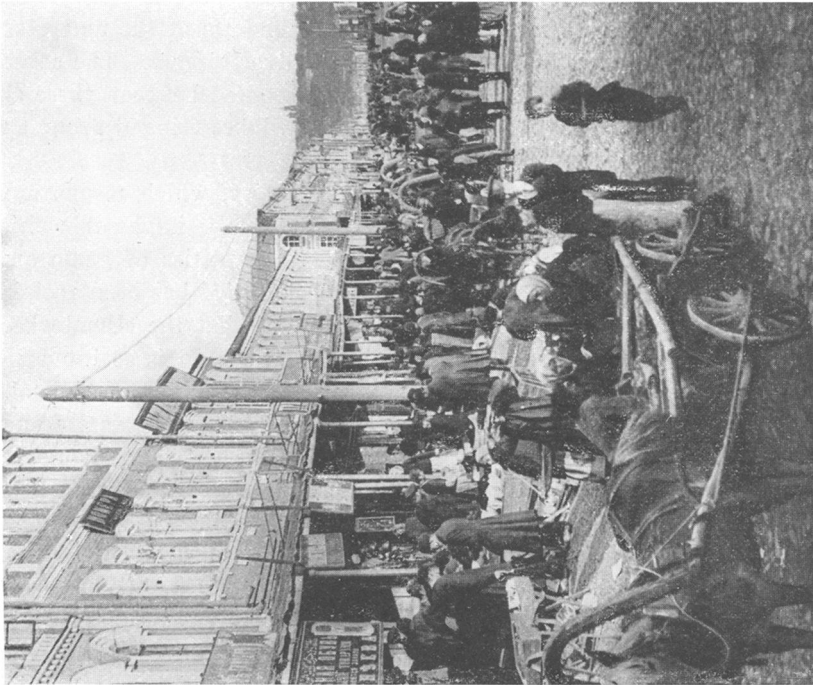


FIG. 5—One of the busy streets in the Fair, Nizhni-Novgorod.
(Photo copyright by Underwood & Underwood.)



FIG. 6—Russian peasants making hay.
(Photo copyright by Underwood & Underwood.)

too, is the result of the plain—allowing of no differences, the creator of endless monotony. You travel for days and days, north and south, east and west, without finding any appreciable variety in the landscape, unless it be a change from the log cabin of the forest region of the north and center to the white, plastered, thatched cottage of the southwest. This, of course, is a very general statement. There are distinct zones of vegetation, which vary, according to the climatic conditions, from the Arctic Circle to the Caucasus and Central Asia.

First of all in the extreme north, from the White Sea to Bering Strait, there lies the region of the tundras—waste frozen marshes stretching inland from the sea for from three hundred to a thousand miles. It is often difficult to determine the point separating the land from the sea, for the surface of the ground is frozen some forty feet deep; even the heat of summer can thaw only about two feet of top soil. The only possible vegetation consists of moss and a few berry bushes—scant food for the millions of birds and beasts of all kinds that flock northward in July and August to escape their enemy, the hunter. By the end of August, however, the heavy frosts set in, and the tundras become a barren, lifeless desert, covered with snow for hundreds of miles, with never a living speck of any kind on which to rest one's eyes.

To the south of the tundras is the great coniferous forest belt, which stretches from Finland to the Sea of Okhotsk. At its western end, where it is more settled, this is perhaps the most beautiful part of the great Russian plain. The countryside is dark with the shadows of the fir trees, but frequently shot with the light, lithe trunks of silver birches. The aspect of the land, too, is slightly rolling in parts, and cradled between these slight elevations there are thousands of charming little lakes fringed around with reeds.

In Siberia, the forest region is called the *taigá*, which means a vast, more or less unknown surface, covered with dense, impassable forests. Heavy underbrush, fallen trunks, and endless quantities of game are its chief characteristics. Comparatively little of the *taigá* has been reclaimed, that is, turned into farming land. One reason is that the climate here is so extreme and the winters so endlessly long. The cold is so intense that an occasional tree splits open, making a noise like the report of a pistol. It is so cold that the warmth from the body of a bird, as it rises from the ground, will leave a streak of steam. Added to this is the annoyance from the swarms of insects characteristic of Arctic summers. The pioneer settlers had to live in houses filled with smoke to get any relief from them, and they had to build huge bonfires in the pasture lands to protect the cattle.

Yet this *taigá* is one of the greatest treasures in Russia's long list of natural resources. In round figures it is said to represent ninety million acres of magnificent timber. That is less than one-tenth of all the timber resources of the Empire, which are estimated at one and a quarter billion

acres. In addition to the great northern forest belt, there are extensive forests on the Urals and the Caucasus. The trees of the *taigá* are pines, firs, spruces, larches, and allied species, intermingled here and there with various kinds of birches, aspen, and a few other leafy trees. At its western end, in the central provinces of Russia, the *taigá* abuts upon the mixed deciduous forest which covers all of cool-temperate Europe. Oak, maple, elm, ash, and poplar are the chief trees. The Mediterranean vegetation of southern Crimea and the eastern Black Sea littoral contains such species as the cork-oak and the yew.

Even to guess at the actual value of these forests would be futile, for they are barely touched as yet. Nevertheless, Russia has exported yearly of late \$81,800,000 worth of timber of various kinds, principally to England, Belgium, Germany, and Austria,—this in spite of the enormous home consumption. All northern and central Russia is built of wood, stone being scarce and inaccessible. It is said that all Russia burns down every seven years! The Russians use wood almost exclusively as fuel, both on the railroads and for heating. It is interesting that in renting an apartment one pays a round sum which includes so many cords of wood for heating purposes. The Russians also employ wood very extensively for utensils and implements of various kinds. Fortunately, there are forest preservation laws. These do not enforce the replacing of trees, as is the case, for instance, in Germany, but a forest cannot be cut more than once in a period of eighty years. In any case, Russia has an abundant supply of timber for the present and a good bit of the future in her great forest regions, enough for herself and her friends.

These same regions are a source of great wealth for a second reason. They are teeming with game of all kinds. Hunting, therefore, is naturally the means of support for many, whether Great Russian peasants in the west, Siberian hunters and trappers in the east, or wild tribesmen in the forests of the Urals or out-of-the-way places of the Empire. Here, again, it is impossible to ascertain the extent of the hunting done, except from the skins and birds that are brought to market. There are regular centers for trading in skins. Yakutsk in eastern Siberia is one of the largest markets, and there is a fair held in Irbit, in the Urals, every year, which is given up entirely to barter in skins. Here the traders buy up the sables and ermines for which the Ostiaks have hunted along the Ob, or the Tatars and Soiois in the Altai ranges, or the Yakuts in the region of the Yablonoi or Stanovoi Mountains. The variety in the game is astounding. The skins range from \$10.00 for Arctic fox to \$50.00 for dark sable. With this abundance of supply, it surprises at first that furs ready for wearing apparel should be so expensive in Russia. The reason for this is that no furs are dyed in Russia. The skins are sent mostly to Leipzig, prepared and dyed, and then shipped back to Russia, laden with duties.

On the outskirts of the forest zone, in the provinces of Vologda and

Yaroslavl (east and southeast of Petrograd) and in the Baltic provinces, lies the great flax-growing country—4,050,000 acres given up solely to this industry. Flax has been grown here for centuries and has given to Russian linen its high reputation. The flax for the finer uses comes from the Baltic provinces and that for the coarser products principally from Vologda, the home of the strikingly beautiful Russian laces, drawn-work, and embroideries which have brought to the outside world a realization of the unusual artistic ability of the Russian peasant.

To the south of the forest zone in European Russia and western Siberia, lies the open country, usually known as the steppe region. At the very mention of the name "steppe" many assiduous readers of pseudo-Russian fiction will smile knowingly and conjure up visions of a Russian Wild West—overrun with ferocious Cossacks, and probably a sprinkling of Kalmyks. As a matter of fact, however, the wild riders of the plain have been superseded by the farmers. The plow has robbed the horses and sheep, even in the southernmost parts, of their fertile pastures. In traveling southward now one sees nothing but farm lands, fields of grain everywhere, until the very edge of the Black Sea is reached. The steppe is principally the granary of Russia. Hundreds and thousands of tons of wheat, rye, oats, and barley are harvested every year. In the crop of 1914 there was nearly 400,000,000 hundredweight of spring and winter wheat alone. Some of the best grain-raising tracts are found in the "black earth" region, the *chernoziom*. This is a band of unusually fertile land, stretching from the neighborhood of Kiev in southwestern Russia in a general northeasterly direction to Tambov and the middle stretches of the Volga and somewhat beyond. It covers an area of 270,000,000 acres and, if farmed to its fullest extent, could more than feed the whole population of Europe.

To the south and east, though the climate is much drier, the grain is very good and plentiful. It was from these driest parts of the grain-producing country that Russia sent help to our state of Kansas when the continued droughts there had ruined the entire crop. The state was in a very sad predicament for a time. The situation was saved, however, by introducing the Russian grain, which had adapted itself to drought, and could therefore flourish in Kansas.

The best wheat comes from Siberia. The frozen ground thaws with the rays of the summer sun and gives to the grain a steady but just sufficient supply of moisture to produce a full, but firm wheat. Western Siberia is given up more to hay fields than to wheat fields. This is the center of the dairy industries. In 1913, 123,000,000 pounds of butter were exported—enough not only to feed Russia, but also to send to England and, in small amounts, to the United States.

To the south of the steppes of western Siberia lie Russia's Central-Asian possessions, the fourth largest cotton-producing area of the world. Since ancient times this territory has been irrigated and cotton has been raised

here, though not in very great quantities. Russia used to obtain most of her cotton from China. Now the tables are somewhat turned, and many of the blue cotton coats worn by John Chinaman come from Russia. There has been a great increase in cotton growing in Central Asia and in eastern Transcaucasia; during the last decade the sowings have multiplied by three hundred and fifty times. Although over 1,300,000 acres, with



FIG. 7.—The heart of Moscow, with the buildings of the Kremlin in the background.

a yield of over 9,250,000 hundredweight, are planted, the domestic supply is not equal to the demand, and nearly half of Russia's supply of raw cotton has still to come from abroad, from America or the British possessions.

Central Asia, particularly Turkestan, is also the original home of Russian silk. From time immemorial the raising of Bagdad cocoons and the weaving of silk have been a staple means of support for the population.

From Persia Russia took a section of her silk-producing country when the Caucasus was conquered, and with it the province of Erivan, whose silks were famed even in the old epic tales of Russia. A great many cocoons, of the Italian variety, are raised in southern Russia. The industry, however, is quite sporadic, and it is difficult to know exactly how much is produced there. The total yield of cocoons in all three of these areas amounts to nearly 160,000 hundredweight a year. The fact that here, as usual, the domestic supply cannot meet the demand agrees strangely with the fact that Russia in 1913 exported \$2,300,000 worth of cocoons, in raw silk and silk fabrics. The reason is that Russia has not yet built enough silk-winding factories. She is still dependent on foreign countries, France particularly, for fine silk fabrics and for wound silk (which is often made from Russian cocoons!)

Since the construction of the Transcaspian railroad, which opened up markets in European Russia, and consequently abroad, for the products of Russia's Central-Asian possessions, these regions have proved themselves a source of great wealth, not only because of their cotton and silk, but also because of the magnificent fruit which is being raised there in increasing quantities—luscious and fragrant apples, which turn translucent in the sun, apricots, pomegranates, figs, etc. The gardens of Central Asia are able to grow an extraordinary variety of products. Fruit culture is also increasing in the Caucasus and southern Russia; extensive orange plantations have been set out, and their fruit has become extremely popular now that the war has cut off the usual supply of oranges from Italy. Land is being reclaimed and set out in fruit farms around Astrakhan. The Crimea, with its extremely mild climate, has, of course, always been a great fruit-growing center; and Bessarabia, near the Rumanian frontier, is particularly noted for its apples and vineyards. The Russians are very fond of fruit, particularly dried, or in the form of fruit pastes or preserves, often using jam in their tea instead of sugar.

The real Russian tea, not that generally known to us and which comes to Russia from China, is being grown now in fairly large quantities. In 1913, 2,130 acres in the Caucasus, on the Black Sea coast, produced nearly 1,200,000 pounds. Russia is the only tea-growing country in Europe. The plantations, started by Chinese workers, are growing quickly and giving very satisfactory results.

Tobacco is raised either from native, American, or Turkish seeds. In 1912 there were over 175,000 acres under tobacco, in southern Russia, Siberia, and Central Asia, with an annual yield of over 2,350 hundredweight; seventy per cent of this is grown from native seeds. This tobacco is called *makhorka*; the ordinary peasant smokes it, and it is recognized from afar because of its extremely pungent odor. American and Turkish tobacco is also raised in southern Russia and in the Caucasus.

These are but a few items in Russia's vast storehouse. She has nearly

2,000,000 acres in sugar beets, Little Russia, the southwestern region of the country, giving the highest yield and the best beet.

But she possesses one especial jewel which places her in the front rank of the wealthy nations of the world, her mineral resources—iron, oil, copper, gold, and precious stones. In the province of Ekaterinoslav, north of the Crimea and the Sea of Azov, lies the great Donetz coal basin, the largest coal field in Europe, containing about a billion tons of flame and coking coal and two and a half billion tons of anthracite. These are the best exploited of the coal mines of the Empire, because of the facilities for transportation and because of their close proximity to enormous beds of iron ore. This region, from being pastoral and agricultural, has become the “black country” of Russia. Busy industrial settlements have sprung up, and, as at Pittsburgh, the sky at night is lurid from the flames of many gigantic blast furnaces.

Then there are the great Dombrova coal fields of Poland, said to contain 855,000,000 tons; and millions of tons of inferior coal in the Moscow region. The rest of the coal deposits are still almost inaccessible. The Caucasus, for instance, is very rich in coal and is said to contain billions of tons, while the coal fields in Asiatic Russia, particularly in the province of Irkutsk, are even richer. One hundred and fifty billion tons are claimed for that one region alone. The supply in the Urals is destined to play an important part in the industrial life of the country, as soon as railroads and labor make these mines sufficiently accessible. One must always add labor to the obstacles in the way of developing the mines, because, being primarily agriculturists, the miners prefer to leave their work and go back to their farms during the harvest time, so that, while the grain is ripening and being gathered in, the amount of labor available for the mines is reduced to a low figure. Nevertheless, in time, the seventy-five billion tons of coal in European Russia and the one hundred and seventy-five billion tons of Asiatic Russia are bound to come into exploitation in the natural course of events.

This is also true of the iron resources of Russia. There are big iron centers in southern and central Russia, Poland, and the Urals. The largest deposits, and those with the purest ore, lie along the southern border of the province of Ekaterinoslav contiguous to the Donetz coal fields. This region supplies seventy per cent of the output of pig iron for European Russia, and although all the Russian ore is very easy to reduce, this ore is particularly so, and its fortunate position in regard to the coal beds nearby will probably soon make of the region one of the most important sections of Russia, and an iron famine, such as was experienced in 1913, will be made impossible. Somewhat the same happy juxtaposition of coal and iron and facilities for transportation obtain in the Altai, in western Siberia, and the temporary dearth of this valuable material will soon be overcome, and Russia will have enough and to spare.

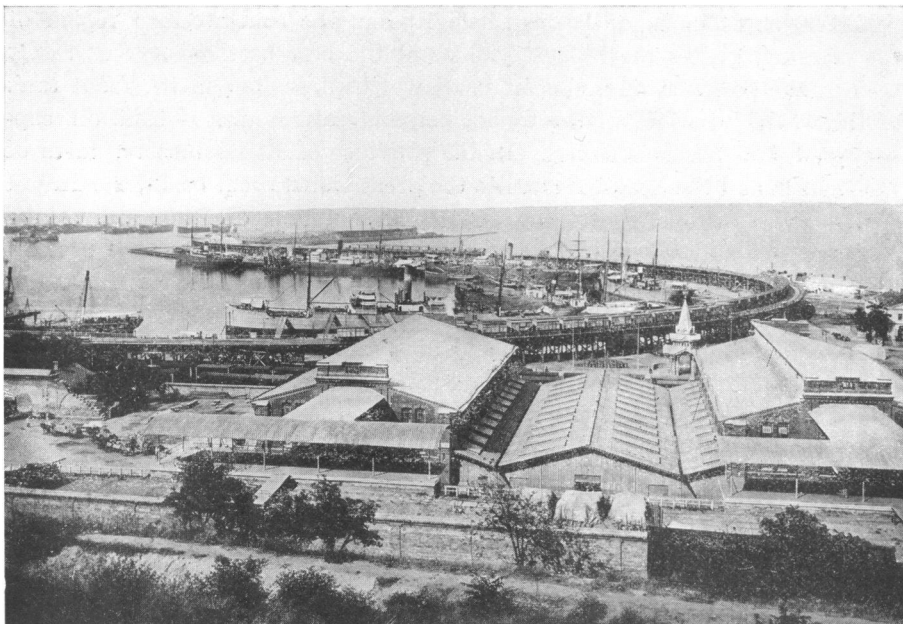


FIG. 8.



FIG. 9.

FIG. 8—The harbor of Odessa.

FIG. 9—Emigrating to Siberia. (Photo copyright by Underwood & Underwood.)



FIG. 10.



FIG. 11.

FIG. 10—Wheat for export at Odessa. (Photo copyright by Underwood & Underwood.)

FIG. 11—Yakuts with reindeer on the Siberian tundra. (Photo copyright by Underwood & Underwood.)

Another of Russia's valuable natural resources is her petroleum. In this, America is her successful rival. Her principal oil wells, discovered centuries ago by fire worshippers, were badly injured by having water turned into them during the revolution of 1905-1906. In 1901 the output of Russian petroleum was 50.6 per cent of the whole world's product, while the American petroleum was only 41.2 per cent. The Russian production in 1901-1905 fluctuated 10 per cent, but the American production was developing more rapidly, and Russia began to lose, so that in 1913 Russia had only 18 per cent and the United States 63 per cent of the world's output of petroleum, but the export of naphtha and naphtha products from Russia reached \$24,000,000 in that year.

Russia is also rich in copper, an uncomputed wealth. In this industry, America is again her more than successful rival, producing 55 per cent of the world's total output, while Russia produces only $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Russia uses about 4,000 tons of American copper a year—after it has been metamorphosed in Germany into lamp-burners, etc. Nevertheless, Russia has extensive copper ore in the Ural Mountains, the Caucasus, in the Altai Mountains, and in Siberia. In that part of the Urals which extends into the Arctic immense beds of copper have been discovered.

Zinc and lead are also among Russia's undeveloped resources; Poland, now in German hands, has the richest deposits, but the Caucasus is full of both metals. North of Vladikavkaz, on the northern slope of the mountains above Tiflis, large quantities have been discovered, and immense deposits of lead have been found in the sea coast region of the extreme east, north of Vladivostok.

The smelting industry, however, is still quite undeveloped, and the crude ore is very often shipped to European Russia or western Europe to be smelted.

Of precious metals and stones, Russia also has her share. The whole hem of her frontier towards the southeast and China is embroidered with gold, silver, platinum, and precious stones. In the Altai Mountains, part of the chain that closes in the Empire to the southwest of Lake Baikal, there are some of the largest gold mines of the world, surpassed only by those of California and the Transvaal, and all along the Lena River and the shore of the Sea of Okhotsk, there are vast deposits of gold. The Urals are, perhaps, the greatest treasure house, for besides the enormous quantities of metals, base and precious, which they contain, they have a wealth of beautiful semi-precious stones, clear and colorful. In Perm, a city in the Urals, a large stone-polishing industry has been developed on account of them, and here they are transformed into the most delicious and radiant drops of color.

Then there are the fisheries, the salt works in the steppes, and an infinitude of industries, big and little, taking form, most of them being established by foreigners, for the Russian very frankly says that his industrial

gift is very slight and languidly presents the samovar as the only Russian invention—an overstatement of the case perhaps, but the fact remains that for the understanding of machinery and business, he has continued to use other people's brains, so far mostly English and German. But whatever the tool Russia may choose, there is an extraordinary unanimity of belief in the greatness of her future.

Is it to come from her potential economic wealth, or from the evident genius of the Slav race? By virtue of her national landscape or from the greatness in the soul of her peasant?

To us Americans, Russia has long been an unknown quantity. Distorted expressions of her spirit have come to us from time to time, but of the conformation and content of her land we have known little and cared less. Of this one seventh of the world's surface we have remained in almost total ignorance, but now, at last, we are trying to see the whole figure of this youngest child of Europe, both spirit and form, and we find we have many mutual bonds. We both know the hunting of game and the felling of trees in the forests of the north; we both feel the pulse of our national life as the wind sweeps over the grainfields or the prairie pastures; we both have our high mountains, deep mines, and swift-flowing, full-flooded rivers. Outwardly we are much alike. But there is a difference—a very great difference. Russia is a country of age-long culture, a culture which she has preserved at the point of her bared sword, in the presence of death. We are the baby of golden-spoon fame; all conditions have combined to favor the prosperous economic development of our country. In struggling to preserve her traditions, she has been unified, and strengthened. She has lived continually in the presence of the other world. History has made Russia into a heart. We have not been knit together as a race in the face of a common foe; we have not had to suffer—history is making of us a brain. Yet, given the practically identical geographical conditions under which to live, it is only natural that we should lean towards each other and on the basis of what we share in common perhaps pave the way to an exchange of those things which we need from each other. Russia's needs are easily read: she is an all-on-land empire, and she needs railroads and more railroads; she needs machinery; she needs the organization and push in business enterprises for which we have become famous. All that side of our life could be profitably shared by Russia; and for us, besides the material gains which needs must result from such relations, will come a knowledge of the spirit which has made and kept her a great nation and which promises so much for the future. In human beings the balance between head and heart is known as genius, and something akin to genius might surely be expected from such a bond.